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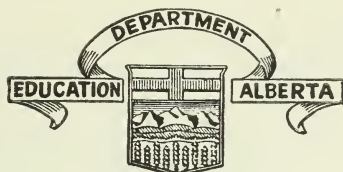
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CONTENTS

	Page
The Essay in Social Studies III.....	3
The Western Union.....	5
The North Atlantic Treaty.....	7
Canada and the Far East Commission.....	9
Eire Severs Commonwealth Ties.....	13
Map of Eire.....	15
Canada and the United States.....	17
Chart—The Government of the U.S.....	18
International Control of Atomic Energy.....	28
Current Affairs.....	34

The Essay in the Social Studies III

Examination

Recent departmental examinations in Social Studies III have required every candidate to write a short essay of 150 to 200 words on a given topic. Usually the candidate has been given a choice of three broad topics, and to assist him in the organization and selection of material a suggested outline accompanies each topic. Since the essay question has a value of 20 marks, or approximately 10 per cent of the total marks, and is obligatory, it may be assumed that the candidate spends from 20 to 30 minutes on this question.

The importance of a well-written essay to the success of the candidate cannot be ignored. The attention of teacher and student is directed in the introduction to the Social Studies courses to the necessity for good written expression. "Every teacher must be a teacher of English . . . Spelling, vocabulary building, and good form in written and oral expression will naturally require frequent and special attention. Students must be able to write legibly, spell common words correctly, punctuate and capitalize according to accepted standards, and know the fundamentals of correct usage." If sufficient attention is given to this aspect of the work in Social Studies and if students are trained and prepared to set down a few relevant thoughts on a given topic which is outlined for them, then they are in a position to gain the full advantage of the English evaluation mark which may be added to the value of the question.

Sub-examiners who have evaluated the Social Studies III answer papers are well aware that for the past few years the essay written by candidates in the Social Studies III examination has been evaluated first on the basis of 20 marks for the substance and accuracy of the subject matter and secondly on the basis of a further 20 marks for correct spelling, punctuation, capitalization and sentence structure. The final value of the essay question becomes 40 marks and its importance to the success of the candidate is doubled. The student should be forewarned of this possible double evaluation of the essay question and he should be prepared to do his utmost from the standpoint of content and written expression.

The general opinion of those who have examined and analyzed the results of the Social Studies III examination is that candidates do not give sufficient thought to form, expression, spelling and punctuation in the essay. With the examination question an outline is given, which, if used, would save a great deal of time for the candidate, and which should help him to devote the limited time at his disposal to the expansion of each sub-heading into a paragraph. Sometimes the suggested outline is not followed and the candidate sets down a few random thoughts which are often neither relevant nor cohesive. An essay of this nature can be awarded very few marks

for content or style. These lapses do not necessarily indicate any dereliction of duty on the part of the teacher of Social Studies as a teacher of English. They may be the product of thoughtless haste or poor distribution of time on the part of the student. Whatever the cause, it would seem advisable for students to understand fully the significance of the essay in that it is obligatory, has a high value (usually 20 marks) and is subject to a possible English evaluation which carries a bonus for good, correct expression. Further, they should by classroom practice recognize the importance (1) of apportioning adequate time (up to 30 minutes) for the writing of the essay, and (2) of following quite closely the outline given with the essay topic.

The Western Union

(Current Affairs, Social Studies III)

On March 17th, 1948, the Governments of Belgium, France, Luxembourg, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom signed the Five Power Treaty of Brussels. This is a development of fundamental importance in the history of Europe, for the Treaty is the core of Western Union. The general aim of the Treaty is to preserve by united action in every field the common democratic heritage of the five countries. The Treaty is valid for 50 years and is open to the accession of other like-minded European states.

In its first three Articles, the Treaty provides for united action in the economic, social and cultural domains. Economic policies will be more closely co-ordinated, combined efforts will be made to improve social conditions, notably by raising the standard of living, and cultural exchanges will be intensified.

It is laid down in the Treaty that the economic co-operation envisaged shall not duplicate or prejudice but shall assist the work of other bodies such as the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe.

The five Governments have further agreed to unite in collective self-defence against any attack on the European territory of any one of them. This mutual military aid in collective self-defence is provided in Article 4 and is based on Article 51 of the United Nations Charter. Article 51 upholds the right of individual or collective self-defence if an armed attack occurs against a member of the United Nations until the Security Council has taken the measures necessary to maintain international peace and security.

The five Governments will set up a Consultative Council which can function continuously and is liable to be summoned immediately at any time.

Whereas there will be automatic collective self-defence action to meet aggression against the territory of any of the signatories in Europe, the Treaty provides for immediate consultation with regard to any situation which may constitute a threat to peace in whatever area this threat may arise. It therefore embraces the overseas territories of the signatories which are not covered under Article 4.

The following are the purposes of the Treaty as defined in the Preamble, which shows the identity of the Treaty with the purposes of the United Nations Charter.

"To re-affirm their faith in fundamental human rights, in the dignity and worth of the human person and in the other ideals proclaimed in the Charter of the United Nations; to fortify and preserve the principles of democracy, personal freedom and political liberty, the constitutional traditions and rule of law which are their common heritage; to strengthen with these aims in view the economic, social

and cultural ties by which they are already united; to co-operate locally and to co-ordinate their efforts to create in Western Europe a firm basis for European recovery; to afford assistance to each other in accordance with the Charter of the United Nations in maintaining international peace and security and in resisting any policy of aggression; to associate progressively in pursuance of these aims other states inspired by the same ideals and animated by a like determination."

Proposed North Atlantic Treaty

(Current Affairs, Social Studies III)

The Foreign Ministers of the Five Signatory Powers of the Brussels Treaty met in Paris on October 25 and October 26, 1948, for the third regular session of the Consultative Council. After examining the decisions taken by the five Defence Ministers at their meeting on September 27-28, 1948, including the setting up of the land, sea and air command organization of Western Union, the Council gave its approval to the principles governing the defence policy of the Five Powers which are based on the Brussels Treaty and on the Charter of the United Nations.

The Council also made a preliminary study of the question of North Atlantic security and the conversations on this subject which took place in Washington during the summer. This examination resulted in complete agreement in the Council on the principle of a defensive pact for the North Atlantic and on the next steps to be taken in this direction. The Council approved the suggestions made by the five Finance Ministers on October 17, 1948. In order to carry out these suggestions as rapidly as possible, the Council decided to set up a Committee of Experts to study the financial and economic questions raised by the organization of the defence of Western Europe. The Council next took note of the progress accomplished in the social cultural fields and approved the reports submitted to it.

As regards the question of European unity, the Council decided to set up a Committee of Representatives chosen by the Governments of the Five Signatory Powers of the Treaty of Brussels, consisting of five French, five United Kingdom, three Belgian, three Netherlands and two Luxembourg members. The object of this Committee, which will meet in Paris, will be to consider and to report to Governments on the steps to be taken towards securing a greater measure of unity between European countries. To this end the Committee will take into consideration all suggestions which have been or may be put forward by Governments or by private organizations.

In this connection it will examine the Franco-Belgian suggestion for the convening of a European Assembly and the British suggestion relating to the establishment of a European Council appointed by and responsible to Governments for the purpose of dealing with matters of common concern. This committee will draw up a report for submission to the Consultative Council at its next meeting. Finally the Foreign Ministers proceeded to a full exchange of views on various international problems certain of which are now being considered in the United Nations Assembly and the Security Council.

Mr. Pearson's Statement

The Secretary of State for External Affairs, Mr. L. B. Pearson, made the following statement at his regular weekly press conference on October 28, 1948:

"The Canadian Government has noted with great interest the statement on October 26 in Paris of the Consultative Council estab-

lished by the Brussels Treaty made up of the Foreign Ministers of Belgium, France, Luxembourg, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom that they are in complete agreement on the principle of a defensive pact for the North Atlantic and on the next steps to be taken in this direction.

"The Canadian Government has been giving careful study to the question of North Atlantic security. Canada's representatives have been participating from the beginning in the conversations which have been taking place in Washington since July 6 between representatives of Belgium, France, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom, the United States and Canada. These conversations were informal, non-committal and explanatory. Some weeks ago they reached the point where it was agreed that it would be desirable to refer the problems which had been raised back to the respective governments for their observations and comments.

"As a result of its study of the question, the Canadian Government recently informed the other participants in the Washington discussions that Canada is now ready to enter into negotiations for a regional treaty for collective security with them and with other North Atlantic states.

"The general lines both of the North Atlantic treaty desired by Canada and also of the implications to Canada of such a treaty have been made clear in public statements made during the past ten months by Mr. King, Mr. St. Laurent, Mr. Claxton and myself.

"The informal conversations in Washington have reached the end of the first stage of discussions. Any treaty in which Canada might join will be submitted to Parliament for approval."

Canada and the Far Eastern Commission

(Current Affairs, Social Studies III)

Behind the grey stone walls of the former Japanese Embassy in Washington the eleven-power Far Eastern Commission has been meeting for three years to decide policy for occupied Japan. Canada is represented on the Commission by its Ambassador to the United States, Mr. Hume Wrong. His alternate is Mr. Ralph E. Collins. The other countries represented on the Far Eastern Commission are Australia, China, France, India, The Netherlands, New Zealand, the Philippines, the United Kingdom, the United States and the U.S.S.R.

Potsdam Proclamation

The terms for the Japanese surrender were laid down by the Potsdam Proclamation of July 26, 1945. This was an agreement between the President of the United States, the President of China and the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom by which Japan would be given an opportunity to end the war. It declared that the authority of those who had misled the people of Japan into embarking on world conquest would be eliminated for all time, and that Japan would be subject to Allied occupation until the basic objectives set forth in the proclamation had been achieved. The sovereignty of Japan would be confined to the four main islands, Honshu, Hokkaido, Kyushu, and Shikoku. The Japanese military forces would be disarmed. Although the Japanese would not be enslaved as a race or destroyed as a nation, stern justice would be meted out to all war criminals. All obstacles to the revival and strengthening of democratic tendencies among the Japanese people would be removed by the Japanese Government, and freedom of speech, religion and thought as well as respect for fundamental human rights would be established. Japan would be permitted to maintain such industries as would sustain her economy and permit the exaction of just reparations in kind but not those which would enable her to re-arm for war. Eventual Japanese participation in world trade relations would be permitted.

The U.S.S.R. formally adhered to the provisions of this declaration upon her entry into the Far Eastern war on August 9, 1945. On August 14 the Japanese offered their unconditional surrender. President Truman accepted the same day and announced the appointment of General Douglas MacArthur as Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers to receive the surrender.

The Instrument of Surrender which was presented for signature to the representatives of the Japanese Government and the Japanese Imperial General Headquarters on board the United States battleship Missouri on September 2, stipulated the complete acceptance of the terms of the Potsdam Proclamation. It also specified the unconditional surrender to the Allied Powers of all armed forces under Japanese control and the subjection of the authority of the Emperor and the Japanese Government to the will of the Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers. Colonel Moore Cosgrave, Military Attache to the High Commissioner for Canada in Australia signed as the representative of Canada along with the representatives of the other nine major belligerents.

Purpose of Commission

The Allies were now confronted with the problem of ensuring that the Terms of Surrender were implemented. The United States proposed the establishment of a Far Eastern Advisory Commission composed of representatives which had participated in the war against Japan. The purpose of the Commission was to make recommendations on the "formulation of policies, principles and standards by which the fulfillment by Japan of its obligations under the Instrument of Surrender may be determined." Australia, Great Britain, Canada, China, France, India, the Netherlands, New Zealand, and the Philippines accepted the United States invitation to participate in the work of this organization. The U.S.S.R. refused, because of the purely advisory character of the Commission. On October 30, 1945, the Commission held its first meeting in Washington and for the next two months it met regularly to consider the disarmament and rehabilitation of Japan. It visited that country in December and returned to Washington in February, 1946.

During December, 1945, the Foreign Secretaries of the Soviet Union, the United States and the United Kingdom reached agreement in Moscow on greater Allied participation in the control of Japan during the occupation period. There was provision for the establishment of an Allied Council for Japan representing the Big Four powers. The Council was to have its seat in Tokyo and its purpose was to consult with and advise the Supreme Commander concerning the "implementation of the Terms of Surrender, the occupation and control of Japan and the directives supplementary thereto." The Chairman of the Council was to be either the Supreme Commander or his deputy. The other members were to be representatives of China, the Soviet Union and the United Kingdom. The United Kingdom offered to share its membership with other Commonwealth countries. Australia, New Zealand and India accepted this offer and an Australian has represented these Commonwealth countries on the Allied Council for Japan. Canada has not taken part in this arrangement for joint representation.

Establishment of Commission

With the concurrence of China the Big Three Foreign Secretaries also announced on December 27, at their Moscow Conference, the Terms of Reference for a Far Eastern Commission (F.E.C.) to replace the Far Eastern Advisory Commission. The Soviet Union would be represented on the new body. Otherwise there was no change in membership. The Advisory Commission returned to Washington from Japan and with the addition of a Soviet representative became the Far Eastern Commission. Headquarters were established in the former Japanese Embassy in Washington and the new Commission held its first meeting there on February 26, 1946. Canada's Chief Representative at that time was Mr. Lester B. Pearson, then Canadian Ambassador to the United States. His alternate was Dr. E. H. Norman, now Head of the Canadian Liaison mission in Japan.

The Far Eastern Commission was given a good deal more power than the old Advisory Commission. Its purpose was to lay down

the policies which the Japanese were to follow in fulfilling the Terms of Surrender which they had signed. Policy decisions of the Commission are passed to the United States Government which is responsible for preparing directives in accordance with these decisions and transmitting the directives to General MacArthur. The Supreme Commander is the executive authority responsible for the implementation of Far Eastern Commission policy decisions. Since he exercises his control of Japan through the Japanese Government it has been his custom to order that Government to put into effect the provisions of these directives which require governmental action.

The Commission may also review at the request of any member, any directive issued to the Supreme Commander or any action taken by the Supreme Commander involving policy decisions within the jurisdiction of the Commission.

Canadian Participation

Canada's representatives have taken a full share in the work of the Far Eastern Commission. They have done so because Canada, as a Pacific power whose security was once jeopardized by a warring Japan, realizes the importance of a peaceful and democratic Japan. Most of the Departments of the Canadian Government have assisted in the formulation of instructions to the Canadian representative. The Canadian Liaison Mission in Japan has also furnished useful advice.

The work of the Far Eastern Commission has been contained within the framework of the broad policy objectives set forth in the Potsdam Proclamation. Roughly there are three of these, disarmament, democratization and the determination of viable economy for Japan.

In the matter of disarmament the Commission has approved policy decisions of considerable importance to Canada. Indeed the implementation of these decisions will not only render the disarmament and demilitarization of Japan complete but will go far towards removing the military threat of Japan to our security in the foreseeable future.

The Commission has also concerned itself with the question of constitutional reform in Japan. On March 6, 1946, the Japanese Government, with the personal endorsement of General MacArthur, sponsored a new constitution. The Commission carefully examined this draft to ensure that it was not inconsistent with the principles of the Potsdam declaration, and in this connection laid down principles which had to be incorporated into the constitution. The new constitution went into effect on May 3, 1947. It is democratic in form but it will be the responsibility of the Japanese themselves to prove that it is democratic in practice.

The Far Eastern Commission has worked to strengthen democratic tendencies by encouraging the development of a free trade union movement in Japan. In accordance with a policy decision entitled "Principles for Japanese trade Unions" Japanese workers and trade unions are to be guaranteed rights not inferior to those enjoyed by their counterparts in the Western Democracies.

The Commission has also adopted a policy which provides in detail standards and principles for the revision of the traditional Japanese educational system. The Commission worked from the sound premise that if the Japanese are to found a democratic nation, their educational system must be democratic and democracy must be taught in schools.

Economic Reform

The Commission activity in the field of economic reform and recovery includes the designation of the period 1930-34 as a yardstick for determining Japan's proper peace time standard of living and such policies directed towards the revival of Japanese trade as the one which established an Inter-Allied Trade Board for Japan. The Commission has not yet decided on a division of reparation shares nor determined the exact peace time levels to be fixed for war-supporting industries in Japan.

In the three years that it has been meeting the Far Eastern Commission has issued fifty-two policy decisions, including the important paper on "Basic Post Surrender Policy". These policy decisions do not cover the whole range of subjects with which the Commission was expected to deal. There have been delays and disagreements which should not be minimized. Nevertheless the Commission has made progress in a number of important fields in setting out the principles to which the Japanese will be expected to adhere in fulfilling the Terms of Surrender and if they wish some day to be readmitted to the family of nations. Pending the convening of a Japanese peace conference participation in the Far Eastern Commission remains the principal means by which Canada can express its views on policy for Japan.

Eire Severs Commonwealth Ties

(Social Studies, III, II, Ia)

For the past fifteen or twenty years the affairs of Eire have not often made headline news. Perhaps the reason for this is that the world-shaking events of an economic depression followed by a global war have so occupied our minds that we have had little time to spare for happenings which did not thrust themselves upon us and demand attention. Recently, in spite of the many critical situations in all parts of the world that are arresting our attention, Eire appeared in the headlines of the newspapers. The occasion was the severance of the last official tie that linked Eire to the Commonwealth under the British crown. Again last February Eire was prominent in the news. The General Election brought defeat to Mr. de Valera's sixteen-year-old government and the formation of a new Irish Inter-Party government under Mr. John A. Costello.

The Irish Free State

Against a background of unpleasant incidents which included pitched battles between the Irish Republican Army and the Royal Irish Constabulary reinforced by British auxiliaries the Irish Free State was created by the signing of a treaty between the British and Irish in December, 1921. Although the terms of the treaty gave Ireland a greater independence than that accorded to the Dominions, the party led by de Valera was not satisfied. It would accept nothing short of the complete independence of an all-Ireland Republic. De Valera withdrew from the government and his supporters carried on an active campaign of violence against the government. Civil war rent the country until this rebellious party was put down by government forces. Cosgrave the new leader, gave the country a firm government for the next six years and established order and a measure of financial stability. A new Irish flag of green, white and gold was adopted. Parliament at Dublin was conducted in Gaelic and a movement to make Gaelic the national tongue made headway. But Ireland had been divided by the formation of the Free State because the six northern provinces around Belfast, called Northern Ireland, preferred to preserve their ties with Britain rather than to be governed from Dublin. The split between Northern Ireland and the Irish Free State is religious and economic as well as political. The Northern counties are Protestant and industrial whereas the Free State counties are Catholic and agricultural.

The firm, careful government of Cosgrave was not calculated to appeal to the Irish worker who had to bear the brunt of governmental economy in reduced earnings and lower living standards. Added to this there was Cosgrave's somewhat unpopular conviction that the Irish Free State was more secure as a member of the British Commonwealth than as an independent republic. De Valera and his supporters became active again before the elections of 1932 at a time when the people were prepared to change the government. His anti-British platform appealed to those who were discontented with things as they were. De Valera's party was elected by a small majority. A trade war between Ireland and Britain ensued which brought Anglo-

Irish trade down to a low level. Relations between the two countries were strained. In 1937 de Valera revised the constitution of the Irish Free State. The name Eire was adopted. The president was to be elected for a seven-year term. The two-chamber legislature was to comprise the Dail Eireann (lower chamber) and the Seanad Eireann (upper chamber), the former elected by popular vote and the latter selected on a vocational basis. Dr. Hyde became the first president and de Valera the first premier under this new constitution which affected the Irish Free State only and not Northern Ireland.

The differences between Eire and Britain were patched up when delegates from the two countries met in London in 1938. Political and trade agreements were reached. Eire paid £10 million in settlement of money due to British bondholders, and Britain restored to Eire the naval bases at Berehaven, Cork and Lough Swilly, which she had held by the treaty of 1922, with the understanding that Eire would never be used by an enemy as a base for operations against Britain. When war broke out the next year Eire remained neutral and refused to allow Britain to use those same naval bases to combat the U-boat blockade of Britain.

Eire's position within the Commonwealth was now by no means clear. She had severed the bonds of allegiance to the British Crown and had taken over full control of her domestic affairs. However, one tie with the Commonwealth still existed in the Executive Authority or External Relations Act of 1936. This Act authorized the King to act on behalf of Eire in its external affairs.

The de Valera ministry was content at this time to have Eire "half in and half out of the Commonwealth"; but his successor Costello whose government is strongly Republican has now taken steps to repeal the External Relations Act and in so doing he severs the last formal tie with the Commonwealth. When this repeal has been passed by the parliament at Dublin, Eire will be an independent republic according to the letter of the law.

The Republic of Eire

Irish Republicans believe that this break with the Commonwealth will end an unhappy chapter, filled with strife and disorder, in the history of Ireland, and will open a new chapter in which, with the removal of coercion and constitutional restraints, the relations between Eire and Britain will be based on a frank and cordial friendship and co-operation.

Once outside the Commonwealth, Eire will have to relinquish the privileges she enjoyed as a member or ask for special provisions for the extension of these privileges to citizens of Eire. Mr. Costello has already stated that "in the new Bill provisions will be made to ensure that Commonwealth citizens shall be afforded comparable rights to those afforded to our citizens in the British Commonwealth. . . Ireland does not intend to regard their citizens as foreigners or their countries as foreign countries." The British Nationality Act which came into operation on January 1, 1949, extends to Irish citizens the same rights and privileges enjoyed by the Commonwealth and United Kingdom citizens. The government of Eire has recipro-



cated by granting the United Kingdom citizens similar rights in Eire to those enjoyed by Irish citizens in the United Kingdom. The question of the status of Irish citizens in the Commonwealth seems to have been satisfactorily settled. There remains, however, the question of the trade preferences shared by Eire as an informal member of the Commonwealth. Must these now be forfeited by independent Eire? The Irish government considers these preferences safeguarded by the General Agreement on Trade and Tariffs of 1947. Perhaps the United Kingdom will be glad at this time to retain her advantageous export trade with Eire.

Northern Ireland

The Republicans of Eire have gained one point in their struggle for independence. Eire is independent but Northern Ireland or Ulster, as it is often called, remains a member of the Commonwealth. This division is a very sore point on both sides of the boundary between the two parts of Ireland. Eire looks forward to the removal of the boundary and the union of the island under the flag of the Irish Republic. Ulster is, at present, determined to resist such a union. The government of Northern Ireland has asked the British government to guarantee that their constitution will not be changed without the full consent of the people of Northern Ireland.

Canada and the United States

(Social Studies III, IV, B,2,6)

In a still troubled world, Canadian-United States relations are truly unique. The boundary between these two sovereign states which share the American continent north of the Rio Grande—the longest unarmed frontier in existence—is crossed by more trade, tourists, products, publications, people and goodwill than any other in the world.

Between no two other countries is friendship more soundly rooted in mutual respect and supported by efficient inter-government machinery for the solution of mutual problems. It is a friendship between peoples who read many of the same publications, cherish many of the same ideals, share the same high standards of living and feel equally at home in either country. Business organizations, labor unions, service clubs, fraternal societies, education, entertainment and sports display a marked similarity in Canada and the United States.

Boundary Agreements

Not since the conclusion of the war of 1812 has there been a serious threat of conflict from either side. The accepted pattern for the peaceful settlement of future disputes was set by the Rush-Bagot Agreement of 1817, which effected permanent disarmament on the Great Lakes.

The determination of the boundary provided a knotty problem. The long disputed line between New Brunswick and Maine was fixed in the Webster-Ashburton Treaty of 1842. Arbitration closed the dispute in 1846 by setting the boundary at the 49th parallel. The last outstanding boundary problem between Canada and the United States was settled by arbitration in 1903 with the drawing of the Alaska boundary.

Political Tensions

There was considerable tension for a time after the rebellion of 1837, occasioned by the raids into Canada by followers of William Lyon MacKenzie, the leader of the uprising in Upper Canada who had fled into the United States. Neither country wanted war, and the affair was soon brought to a close.

During the sixties, first the American Civil War produced several border incidents in two or three raids which were abortive and unorganized. Again, the Irish nationalist Fenian raids into Canada in 1866 caused Canadian apprehension. In neither case did these represent an official aggressive U.S. policy. Nevertheless, the desire for greater security was an important factor in the movement toward confederation in the several Canadian provinces.

The cancellation by the United States in 1866 of the reciprocal trade treaty of 1854 provided a further spur to united action north of the boundary. (It was not until 1935 that the subsequent tariff wall between Canada and the United States was partially lowered.)

The Government of t

THE CO

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EXECUTIVE

LEGI

PRESIDENT

*Elected by Electoral College
for 4-year period.

CABINET OF MINISTERS

Appointed by
the President.

VICE-PRESIDENT

Elected same as
President. He has
no special power.

CON

HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES

435 Members elected
the citizens of t
States for 2-year ter
one member for abo
every 300,000. P
sided over by t
Speaker.

PRESENT STANDING OF THE

President	Mr. H. Truman
Vice-President	Senator A. W.
Senate	Democrats, 54,
House of Representatives	Democrats, 26
Speaker	Mr. Sam Rayb

* Elected indirectly by popular vote.

e United States, 1949

STITUTION

d by law
1789

ATIVE

JUDICIAL

ESS

SENATE

96 Members elected by the citizens for a 6-year term. One-third are elected every two years. Presided over by the Vice-President.

SUPREME COURT

Nine Justices appointed by the President for life.

IGHTY-FIRST CONGRESS — 1949

Democrat.

rkley, Democrat.

Republicans, 42.

Republicans, 171; American Labor, 1.

n, Democrat.

After Confederation in 1867, the "manifest destiny" theory (of the inevitability of American control of the entire continent) proclaimed by certain politicians in the United States continued to fan Canadian fears for some time. Senator Sherman in 1888 said: "Our whole history since the conquest of Canada by Great Britain in 1763 has been a continuous warning that we cannot be at peace with each other except by political as well as commercial union . . . it will come by the logic of the situation."

Annexation won some support within Canada itself. But it was finished as a real issue with the decline of the movement for commercial union led by Goldwin Smith at the close of the century. It has since been recognized in both countries that Canada would remain an independent nation. The bogey annexation, however, persisted long enough to play an important part in determining the Canadian refusal to accept the renewal of reciprocity offered by the United States in 1911.

A New Era

The tradition of peaceful negotiation narrowed the areas of disagreement in questions of fisheries, transportation and communication. The creation of the International Joint Commission in 1909 was an important milestone in the history of Canadian-United States relations. For the first time, North American questions were to be settled by direct negotiations between representatives of the two countries.

This was a significant step in the development of Canada's sovereignty: previously, British diplomats had acted on Canada's behalf—sometimes with Canadian advisers. The International Joint Commission, with equal Canadian and United States representation, was empowered to investigate any questions or matters of difference involving the governments of citizens of Canada and the United States.

Consistent with Canada's growing status in international affairs, the first Canadian legation was established in Washington on February 17, 1927, with the Hon. Vincent Massey as Canada's first minister to a foreign country.

Recognition of Mutual Dependence

During the thirties, the fundamental urge for friendship between Canada and the United States was underlined by the growing uncertainty in the world picture. The vestiges of past suspicions faded in the light of common interest. The interdependence of the two countries was formally recognized by President Roosevelt in his historic statement of American policy in 1938: "The Dominion of Canada is part of the sisterhood of the British Empire. I give you assurance that the people of the United States will not stand idly by if domination of Canadian soil is threatened by any other Empire."

The reply by the Canadian Prime Minister, the Rt. Hon. W. L. Mackenzie King, was equally significant: "We too have our obligations as a good friendly neighbor, and one of them is to see that, at

our own instance, our country is made as immune from attack or possible invasion as we can reasonably be expected to make it, and that, should the occasion ever arise, enemy forces should not be able to pursue their way, either by land, sea, or air to the United States, across Canadian Territory."

The stage was set for the unique co-ordination of effort achieved by Canada and the United States during the second World War, which brought the two countries into closer partnership and understanding than ever before.

MILITARY CO-OPERATION

The Ogdensburg Agreement

On August 17, 1940, the Prime Minister of Canada met with the President of the United States at Ogdensburg, New York. Following their discussions, a joint statement—soon famous as the Ogdensburg Agreement—was released to the world. In view of the urgent defence requirements of North America, it was agreed that a Permanent Joint Board on Defence, with equal representation from both countries, was to be set up immediately, to advise on immediate needs, and to constitute the permanent advisory instrument for planning the defence of both Canada and the United States in the post-war period.

For the first time in its history, Canada had entered into a defensive arrangement with a country outside of the British Commonwealth; and the United States, still a neutral, had concluded what could be regarded as a defence alliance with a belligerent state. A historic advance had been made in Canadian-American relations.

Defence Measures

One of the earliest projects of importance to continental defence had been initiated by the Canadian government prior to the outbreak of war. This was the Northwest Staging Route—a chain of airports connecting Edmonton, Alberta, with northwest Canada and Alaska. The project, readily approved as essential by the Permanent Joint Board on Defence, was rushed to completion by the Canadian government by the fall of 1941.

After Pearl Harbor, with the United States at war, Canada at once offered free use of this vital airway—removed from the coast and immune from enemy attack—to the American forces.

Early in 1942 a second project, complementary to the Northwest Staging Route, was undertaken by the United States. Following the general route of the airway, the American army constructed the Alaska Military highway from Dawson Creek, British Columbia, to Fairbanks, Alaska. In spite of great engineering difficulties, the road was in operation by November, 1943.

Since all but 250 miles of the 1,500-mile road are in Canada, it was agreed that the Canadian section of the road would come under the administration of the Canadian government at the end of the war—subject to the understanding that there would be no discrimination at any time against United States civilian traffic on the road.

At the same time joint measures were being taken for the defence of the north-eastern approaches to the North American continent. The construction of the Goose Bay (Labrador) field by Canada and of fields in Greenland and Iceland by the United States made it possible to ferry relatively short-range aircraft across the Atlantic.

In order to provide more extensive ferrying routes, the United States in June, 1942, secured the agreement of the Canadian Government and began the construction of a chain of airfields across north-eastern Canada. The project was never completed: the mastery of the submarine menace permitted more aircraft to be transported across the Atlantic by ship and reduce the threat of enemy action against the northeastern section of the continent.

Canada reimbursed the United States for its expenditures on permanent defence installations in northern Canada—the staging routes and communication lines. In all, Canada had spent some \$120 million on airfields and related projects in the north by 1944.

During 1942 a Canadian Joint Staff Mission was set up in Washington to assist the military co-ordination of the two countries. Canadian and American soldiers served jointly in Newfoundland, Iceland and Alaska; squadrons of the Royal Canadian Air Force flew alongside United States squadrons in Alaska, Newfoundland and Labrador; the Royal Canadian Navy and the United States Navy co-operated in North Atlantic escort and patrol duties.

Canadian soldiers were teamed with U.S. troops in a Special Service Force. Canadian parachute troops were trained in the United States prior to the establishment of parachute training facilities in Canada; American units used a Canadian camp as a cold-weather base for training and testing equipment. The occupation of Kiska in the Aleutians in 1943 was a joint operation.

Some 15,000 American citizens enlisted in the Canadian armed forces; after the United States entered the war, an agreement was adopted whereby they might transfer to their own services if they so desired.

WARTIME ECONOMIC CO-OPERATION

The Hyde Park Declaration

As in the case of military co-operation, the basis for complete economic liaison was laid before the United States entry into the war. The Ogdensburg Agreement was matched in the economic field by the Hyde Park Declaration of April 20, 1941. Like the Ogdensburg Agreement, the declaration was never embodied in a formal treaty—but remained an understanding arrived at by the heads of two friendly nations desirous of the most constructive co-operation.

The core of the Hyde Park Declaration was the agreement: "That in mobilizing the resources of this continent each should provide the other with the defence articles which it is best able to produce, and, above all, produce quickly, and that production programs should be co-ordinated to that end."

The Declaration met a triple need. First, it averted the danger of a shortage of American dollars impeding Canada's war effort. After Dunkirk, the great step-up in Canada's military production program had led to heavily increased expenditures in the United States for necessary imports such as machine tools, aircraft and military equipment. Canada's dollar earnings, reduced by the loss of European dollar markets and the curtailment of U.S. tourist trade, failed by far to keep pace—in spite of the introduction of rigid exchange control measures, Canada's current account deficit with the United States was about \$300 million per year. By the terms of the Hyde Park Declaration, Canada was assured of receiving its necessary imports by increased American purchases of Canadian war goods.

Thus also, it met a second need of ensuring that the United States would receive urgently needed war supplies from Canada for the vast American program of defence preparation. Third, the Declaration ensured that there would be no duplication of productive effort, and that the economic facilities of both countries would be integrated for their most effective use.

U.S. Lend-Lease and Canadian Mutual Aid.

The Hyde Park Declaration also provided that supplies which Canada purchased in the United States for the production of war material for Great Britain would be entered on Great Britain's Lend-lease account. Canada, alone among all the belligerent United Nations, did not participate in American Lend-Lease program: the Canadian government felt that Canada, as a nation in a favored position, free from the ravages of war, was duty bound to stand on its own feet, and share with the United States in assisting less fortunate allies in fighting the common enemy.

Under the Canadian Mutual-Aid Act of 1943, Canada made her war supplies available as an outright gift to any member of the United Nations which could use them and had not the means of payment. In all, Canada's Mutual Aid expenditures totalled some four thousand million dollars. The recipients were Australia, British West Indies, China, France, Greece, India, New Zealand, Russia and the United Kingdom. Of Canada's total munitions production, only twenty-nine per cent for Canada's own armed forces—fifty-seven per cent was distributed by the Mutual Aid Board, and fourteen per cent was purchased by the United States.

Joint Economic Action

Many joint Canadian-American committees were set up to implement the Hyde Park Declaration. In May, 1941, a Materials Co-ordinating Committee was established to promote the movement of primary materials, increase available supplies and collect information on raw material stocks in the two countries.

In June, 1941, Joint Economic Committees were created to consider means of effecting an efficient, economical and co-ordinated use of combined resources and a reduction of probable post-war economic dislocation. In November, 1941, a Joint War Production

Committee was formed to provide arrangements for uniform specifications, quick exchange of supplies, and the clearing of supplies, and the clearing of transportation bottle-necks.

After Pearl Harbor, the Committee saw to it that no administrative impediments such as customs regulations, import duties or tariffs interfered with the free flow of goods in either direction across the border. Sub-committees held frequent conferences to keep completely abreast of developments.

Price and wage control systems in Canada and the United States were similar in principle. Many features of the earlier Canadian controls were adopted in the United States.

On November 10, 1942, Canada became a full member of the Combined Production and Resources Board, formed earlier by the United States and the United Kingdom. The Joint Standing Agricultural Committee was established in March, 1943, to review Canadian-American food production and distribution continuously, to study food policies in the light of war requirements, and to prevent either country from carrying an unequal burden of consumer food shortages. Canada joined the United States and the United Kingdom as a full member of the Combined Food Board on October 19, 1943.

At the 1943 Quebec Conference, a Joint-Canadian-American War Aid Committee was formed by Prime Minister King and President Roosevelt to study problems arising out of the Lend-Lease and Mutual Aid programs.

Practical co-operation between control officers in both countries greatly facilitated the economic integration. The American War Production Board thus worked out a program of priorities for critical materials on a basis of equality for war industries in both countries.

Canadian-United States co-operation in the Canol oil project was designed to provide an assured fuel supply to the American forces in Alaska. Under an agreement between the two governments, the Canadian government made available the necessary sites and oil rights in the Norman Wells fields on the Mackenzie River, about 100 miles south of the Arctic circle, and the United States constructed the project.

A final and most vital realm of co-operation between Canada and the United States was in the development of the atomic bomb. Canada possessed large deposits of uranium ore—the basic material in atomic research. In 1942 an important phase of atomic study was undertaken in Canada as a joint project of Canada, the United States and the United Kingdom.

The Canadian government purchased the uranium properties in the north, and made available large quantities of the raw materials required for the manufacture of atomic bombs in American plants. Canada was associated with the United States and the United Kingdom in the three-nation declaration on atomic energy signed in Washington on November 15, 1945, which recommended the setting up of a commission under the United Nations to prepare for the international control of atomic power to ensure its use for peaceful purposes.

Because of her special interest in this field, Canada, apart from the Great Powers, is the only country permanently represented on the Atomic Energy Commission of the United Nations.

ECONOMIC ASPECTS OF CANADIAN-AMERICAN RELATIONS

Trade

Total trade between Canada and the United States exceeds that between any other two countries in the world. In 1946 its value was estimated at \$2,250 million dollars. American trade with Canada virtually equalled the combined value of American trade with the United Kingdom, France and China. Canada sold to the United States 40 per cent of all exports.

Canada, which buys more than 60 per cent (during the war years 75 per cent) of her imports from the United States, is by far America's best customer. The United States, in turn, has now replaced the United Kingdom as Canada's principal export market.

Forestry products made up half of the Canadian exports to the United States in 1946, with newsprint as the largest single item. Agricultural products and base metals were other important export commodities.

Since Canada normally buys more from the United States than she sells in that country, "invisible" Canadian exports to the United States of non-monetary gold and American tourist expenditures in Canada are important factors in the Canadian balance of international payments. In 1946, American tourist expenditures in Canada approximated 207 million dollars.

Investment

Investment, like trade, has acted as a powerful economic link between Canada and the United States. At the end of 1945, out of a total non-resident investment in Canada of 7,095 million dollars, 70 per cent represented investments held in the United States. The direct investments of United States business in branches, subsidiaries and controlled companies in Canada, which increased 22 per cent during six wartime years, amounted to 2,300 million dollars at the end of 1945.

Such branch plants have produced close business relationships between Canada and the United States: common designs, research and advertising facilities are employed in the production of comparable products in both countries. Branches in Canada which have been established as a source of supply for American parent companies, as in the case of wood pulp, greatly stimulate the export of Canadian raw materials.

The flow of investment capital across the boundary has been a two-way movement: Canadian investments in the United States of close to 1,000 million dollars are on a per capita basis considerably greater than American investments in Canada and the United States, their parallel developments from pioneer communities to major industrial nations, made a close association of business interests in both countries inevitable, and of mutual benefit.

Transportation

Transportation links further strengthen the economic association. More than 8,000 miles of Canadian railways in the United States and some 1,500 miles of U.S. track in Canada connect with their parent systems through fifty border crossings. Freighters from both countries freely ply the common inland waterway of the Great Lakes system.

The extensive Canadian canal system is open to all ships on an equal basis—and more than one-half of the traffic passing through comes from the United States. Tonnage through the Sault Ste. Marie canals, one Canadian and the other American, is approximately twice as heavy as that through the Panama Canal. Similarly close links are now being established in the growing field of civil aviation.

KINSHIP OF PEOPLE AND OUTLOOK

As a further bond in the continental neighborhood, the denser areas of the Canadian and American population are for the most part located near the common border. Personal contacts between corresponding sections of the two countries—between Montreal and New York, Toronto and Buffalo, Windsor and Detroit, Winnipeg and Minneapolis, Vancouver and Seattle—are thus in many cases easier than contacts between different sections within each country.

Historically, the movement of people in both directions across the border was an important factor in the development of both Canada and the United States. Beginning with the United Empire Loyalists, the first great influx of English-speaking colonists came to Canada from the United States. Hundreds of thousands of French-speaking Canadians immigrated to New England and New York. The citizens of both countries were intermingled in the westward movement across the continent that peopled the fertile prairies.

The common task was the opening up of a vast continent, and the dynamic character of this task eliminated the boundary—in so far as hampering the free movement of people from either country was concerned. Political loyalties were submerged in the pioneers' search for greater opportunity.

At present, if one were to count up all the people born in Canada and still alive, fourteen out of every hundred are living in the United States. Conversely, 350,000 of American birth have made their homes in Canada. The exchange of population on such a scale indicates the fundamental similarity of life in both countries.

The political institutions of both Canada and the United States have a common origin in Great Britain and western Europe. English is a common tongue. Although they have achieved national sovereignty in different ways, both Canada and the United States have travelled the same road from colonial dependence to national independence. In both countries the democratic freedom of the individual is the very foundation of the state. Twice in the present century Canada and the United States have fought side by side in defence of their common democratic ideals. Both are now dedicated to the building of peace through the United Nations.

The harmony of ideals and aspirations is matched by the strong community in the daily life of Canada and the United States. There is the same high standard of living and education, similar trade marks, products, commercial tastes and advertising. Tastes in food, entertainment and sport can be satisfied with few differences on either side of the border. Although there are significant contrasts in the temper of the two peoples, the high degree of common culture intensified by movies, magazines, newspapers, travel and migration, constitutes a tie of unique strength between Canada and the United States.

Agencies of Canadian-American Co-operation

In addition to the official, governmental channels, whose relations have never been more intimate than they are at present, there are scores of agencies which constantly promote closer understanding between Canada and the United States. Business, labor, professional, academic, social and artistic associations embrace membership in both countries.

One of the latest agencies may well prove to be fruitful in the future development of greater understanding between the two countries. This is the Canada-United States Committee on Education, founded in 1944. The Committee exists as an unofficial consultative body, made up of prominent Canadian and American educators; its aim is to ensure "an adequate educational undergirding for the perpetuation of the international amity in North America which now exists."

The Committee believes that education in both countries must be based upon the assumption which has proved so successful in the history of Canadian-American relations—that mutual understanding and the tolerance of differences in national traditions are essential ingredients of enduring mutual respect.

International Control of Atomic Energy

(Social Studies III, III,B,7)

An Address by General A. G. L. McNaughton.

"I value very much indeed the opportunity which you have given me to say a few words on the subject of 'The International Control of Atomic Energy'. This is a subject which I think has become of utmost importance in the relations between nations and in fact I would venture the opinion that the development of a satisfactory solution to this acute problem and the institution of appropriate safeguards are among the indispensable conditions for the establishment and maintenance of stable peace throughout the world.

The Development of Atomic Energy

"The whole business of the development and use of atomic energy is of special interest, for Canada was very closely associated with the United Kingdom and the United States in the project which resulted in the first use of atomic energy in war—a use which I would observe was decisive in bringing to a quick end Japanese resistance in their home island and the consequent surrender of all their forces throughout the theatre of operations. Thus the first use of atomic energy in war will always be associated in our minds with a proper ending to the world wide ordeal to which we were subjected in World War II—a struggle in which our conceptions of right and justice and the principles of our way of life had been placed in peril by the evil which the Axis autocracies had sought to impose on the world.

"In the last phase of World War II our Sixth Canadian Division, which following victory in Europe was being organized in Canada, was destined for the assault landings in Japan and would have taken part in the heavy battles which would have followed. The success of the atomic bombs thus saved Canada from very many casualties and thus their first use to end a tyranny and to restore peace is for us a good augury into the future; we may well look forward to the application of atomic energy to the peaceful progress of the world and to the contribution which it may make to the happiness and welfare of men of good will everywhere.

"The evidence shows clearly that the possibilities for the beneficial peaceful uses of atomic energy are literally incalculable. In medicine—in chemistry—in biology—tools of such novelty and power and aptness to the task in hand, that wherever they have been freed for use, the frontiers of knowledge are being pressed back and the vistas of human understanding widened in a most remarkable fashion.

Canada's Part

"In Canada the inspiring task of leading and stimulating these developments and helping the research workers at our universities in their endeavours has been given to the National Research Council. The Council has been made the operating authority for the Atomic

Energy Control Board with jurisdiction over the plants which have been erected at Chalk River. The work in hand there will therefore be made to contribute directly in the search for new knowledge.

"We would be very happy indeed to give the freest information about this hopeful work but unfortunately as matters stand it is not in all fields that there is freedom of use or to give information. Nor can this be so at present, for the materials which release atomic energy have a dual character. They are useful in the hands of unscrupulous persons; even in comparatively minute quantities, their possession may be a terrible menace to our security.

The Need for Control

"It is for this reason that in all matters related to atomic energy the requirements of national defence must take precedence and there can be no compromise of security until the position has been made safe by means of an international agreement for the control of atomic energy which will give acceptable safeguards enforceable with certainty.

"The limiting factor on the peaceful development of atomic energy, particularly in its application to power and other large uses, is the absence of this international agreement for its control and regulation and so the best service which can now be rendered is to do everything possible to develop this agreement under which we may hope that all nations may come to have confidence that atomic energy will be used for peaceful purposes only. As part of this agreement it is proposed to set up a system of safeguards and controls which will in fact ensure that atomic war cannot be prepared or at the least that if any nation should attempt to do so then the situation will be promptly known and reported to all other nations so that they will be able to take timely action as required by the circumstances.

"It has been thought by those who have studied all aspects of this problem that without undue restriction on the peaceful uses of atomic energy and without the setting up of an unduly cumbersome organization, it would be possible to provide at the least several months' warning before atomic war could be launched by any nation on any significant scale. It is thought that the certainty of having such a period of warning during which appropriate counter measures could be taken should give the nations confidence to undertake the establishment of such a system, which, once established, could be expected to develop in reliability.

"If confidence can once be established that atomic war is not being prepared, it may reasonably be expected to extend to all other weapons of mass destruction and ultimately to war itself. It seems therefore that the key to the situation in this troubled world is agreement for the control of atomic energy.

"In the absence of an international agreement an alternative possibility of preserving peace, should be continued and increased by every method which is open. The very progress which is made by these nations will be a strong inducement to other nations to join in the project for international control so that they may share in the benefits.

"There can, of course, be no continuing monopoly in the facts of science; what one nation has found out, others can learn also by the application of appropriate efforts and granted sufficient time. In truth there never have been any real scientific secrets about the atomic bomb. The whole epic history of nuclear physics has been international in character from the first detection in France of the peculiar rays given off by uranium minerals, and in between these great events there have been very substantial contributions to knowledge from almost every country engaged in scientific research.

"While I make the point that there are no real scientific secrets yet there are most important technological advantages and engineering know-how which are the exclusive prerequisite of those who have laboured and carried the burden of development. I would say that in the atomic energy project, like any other major undertaking, there is a phase where prodigious effort is required for little in the way of return; then there comes a point at which the returns increase very rapidly for a little additional effort and everything goes forward on a rising curve.

The Atomic Energy Commission

"The first step towards the creation of such an international agreement was made very shortly after the termination of the war by the United States, Great Britain and Canada, in a declaration issued at Washington on November 15, 1945, recognizing the need for an international agreement and proposing as a matter of great urgency the setting up of a Commission under the United Nations to study the problem and to make recommendations for its control.

"This was followed by a meeting of the Foreign Ministers in Moscow in December, 1945, at which the Washington proposals were endorsed. At the meeting of the General Assembly on January 24, 1946 in London, the United Nations Atomic Energy Commission was established by unanimous resolution.

"The Commission, composed of delegates from each country represented on the Security Council, as well as Canada, when Canada is not a member of the Security Council, was charged with making specific proposals, among other matters 'for the control of atomic energy to the extent necessary to ensure its use only for peaceful purposes,' and 'for effective safeguards by way of inspection and other means to protect complying states against the hazards of violations and evasions.'

The U.S. Proposal

"When the Commission first met in New York in June, 1946, it was presented with two different plans for the control of atomic energy—one proposed by the United States, and the other by the Soviet Union. The United States proposals called for the formation of an International Atomic Development authority, which would foster beneficial uses of atomic energy and would control atomic activities in all nations either by direct ownership, management or supervision, in the case of activities potentially dangerous to world security, or by a licensing and inspection system in the case of other activities. This

system of control would be set up by stages and after it was in operation, the manufacture of atomic bombs would cease. Existing bombs would be disposed of, and the world authority would be given information regarding the production of atomic energy. In addition, the United States proposal emphasized that the veto of the Great Powers in the Security Council should not apply in the event that any nation was charged with having violated the international agreement not to develop or use atomic energy for destructive purposes.

The U.S.S.R. Proposal

"The proposals made by the United States accord very closely with the views of the Government of Canada, and of many other nations in the Western World, as to how atomic energy might be brought under control. On the other hand, the Soviet Government put forward a plan which differed fundamentally. It proposed the immediate outlawing of the atomic bomb and the destruction of all existing stocks of atomic weapons within a three month period. To this end the Soviet delegate tabled a draft convention which, he said, should be negotiated forthwith as the first step towards the establishment of a system of international control.

"The Soviet delegate was prepared to discuss methods of control and inspection but he maintained that the immediate prohibition of atom bombs must come first. In recent discussions of the Soviet proposals, he has again made this point very clear; he holds that his prohibition convention must be signed, ratified and put into force before the Soviet will agree even to discuss a system of control.

"The idea that the menace to world peace presented by the atomic bomb could be solved simply by the signing of an international agreement to prohibit its use or manufacture seems very unreal. The experiences of the last twenty-five years have shown that international agreements alone are not enough to safeguard the peace. The prohibition of the use and manufacture of the atomic bomb at the present time would merely seriously reduce the military strength of the United States, the only nation now in possession of atomic bombs, at least on any scale which would suffice to make atomic war. It would be an act of unilateral disarmament which would give no assurance that any country engaged in atomic energy activities would not, or could not, make and use the bomb in the future. Fissionable material, the essential substance for such peaceful applications of atomic energy as the development of industrial power, is also the explosive element of the bomb, and in the absence of effective inspection and control could readily be diverted clandestinely from peaceful to military uses by a nation secretly preparing for atomic war.

"For these reasons, most members of the Commission are in general agreement with the principles of the United States proposals. They consider that the prohibition of the use or manufacture of the atomic bomb should form part of an over-all control plan, so that when such prohibitions are put into effect they would be accompanied by the applications of safeguards such as international inspection of all countries to ensure that no secret activities in atomic energy were in progress.

"After weeks of discussion along these general political lines, the Commission decided to seek a new approach to the problem by a systematic study, in committee, of the available scientific information, to determine whether an effective control of atomic energy was in fact feasible technically. This study resulted in a unanimous report by the scientists of all nations represented on the Commission that **'they did not find** any basis in the available scientific facts for supposing that effective control is **not** technologically feasible.' With this conclusion before it, the Commission then proceeded to discuss the 'safeguards' that would be required at each stage in the production and application of atomic energy to ensure its use for peaceful purposes only.

Further Discussion

"Since the beginning of the year the discussions have continued and some progress has been made in clarifying ideas in respect to the form and scope of the International Control Organization which would be required if the majority proposals developed in the Commission were to be put into effect. However, it is now evident that the form of the International Organization required is intimately dependent on the details of the methods of control and safeguards to be adopted and, as these are not agreed to by the U.S.S.R. and the Ukraine, it does not seem useful to pursue the matter further until there is some indication that the minority will accept the majority view. When this transpires it will be relatively easy to settle the particulars of the International Organization required. A conclusion in this sense was recorded in Committee 2 on Tuesday, March 30, 1948.

"Fully half the time and attention of the members of the Commission during this year have been devoted to a meticulous re-examination of the Soviet proposals in detail to make abundantly certain that no possible misconception of their purport should stand in the way of agreement. However, it is evident that there is no misconception and there thus remains a very wide gap between the views of the U.S.S.R. now echoed by the Ukraine and those of the rest of the Commission.

"On Monday, April 5, 1948, Committee One took note of this position and accepted a report prepared by the representatives of the United Kingdom, France, China and Canada, in which the Soviet proposals are fully analyzed and the reasons for their inadequacy stated in detail. Thus the two principal Committees of the Atomic Energy Commission have reached the conclusion that no useful purpose will be served by continuing their discussions at present.

The conclusions of Committees 1 and 2 as to the inadequacy of the Soviet proposals and the views of the majority on the situation have now been included in a Draft of the Commission's 3rd Report which, as I have said, was presented to the Atomic Energy Commission on Friday, May 7, 1948, given first reading and referred to governments for preliminary opinion and instruction to their delegations. It is expected that the consideration of this Report will go to the Security Council and thence to the General Assembly in September.

"As I have remarked we may be disappointed at this suspension of our work in the Commission but I certainly think that we should not be unduly cast down on this account, and we should certainly not under-estimate the value and significance of the progress which has been made.

No Agreement Reached

"Up to date we have been more anxious that the U.S.S.R. should continue to be represented in the discussions and less concerned that they would at once agree to the majority proposals. We first of all had to find out for ourselves what it was to which we wished them to agree. I think I can claim that we have felt so convinced of the necessity for proper control and we are now so genuine in our belief as to how it must be brought about that we feel that something of this sincerity must find its way through to the people of Russia. It is a fact that no people would benefit more than they would from what we have proposed and so both on the grounds of benefit from the peaceful application as well as of security it is not too much to hope that eventually a way will be found to overcome the opposition of those who presently control the policy of the Soviet.

"It is true that at present it is impossible to obtain agreement on the methods for control; the recent discussions on the Soviet proposals have shown that they are unprepared to yield on certain points which the other nations hold as essential constituents in any satisfactory plan. But it seems that the Soviet objections arise from the fact that, in the tension and mistrust of the world situation as it exists today, they evidently do not feel that they can give up, to an international body in which nations they consider unfriendly to them are bound to be in the majority, the degree of authority which the other nations are convinced is essential for security.

"There are some grounds for hope, therefore, that in the future, when nations of the world may be less sharply divided and when the United Nations does in fact represent a body unified for the purposes of peace, it will be possible to convince the U.S.S.R. that the plan for the control of atomic energy put forward in the reports of the Atomic Energy Commission does in truth represent a proper basis for the elimination of atomic warfare and that it is not a plan to maintain the domination of certain nations. At that time we may hope that the Soviet will be prepared to discuss these proposals with a more open mind and that, with perhaps a few modifications, they will then accept their implications."

Current Affairs

The items listed below bring up-to-date the information on pages 3 - 8 of Bulletin No. 15.

The New Federal Cabinet

The retirement of Prime Minister Mackenzie King and the appointment of Mr. St. Laurent to fill the vacancy has resulted in a number of changes in the federal cabinet.

The new cabinet is now as follows:

Rt. Hon. L. S. St. Laurent, K.C., Prime Minister and President of the Privy Council.

Hon. C. D. Howe, Minister of Trade and Commerce.

Hon. J. G. Gardiner, Minister of Agriculture.

Hon. Colin Gibson, M.C., K.C., V.D., Secretary of State.

Hon. Humphrey Mitchell, Minister of Labour.

Hon. Alphonse Fournier, K.C., Minister of Public Works.

Hon. Ernest Bertrand, K.C., Postmaster General.

Hon. Brooke Claxton, K.C., Minister of National Defence.

Hon. J. A. MacKinnon, Minister of Mines and Resources.

Hon. Joseph Jean, K.C., Solicitor General of Canada.

Hon. Lionel Chevrier, K.C., Minister of Transport.

Hon. P. J. J. Martin, K.C., Minister of Health and Welfare.

Hon. D. C. Abbott, K.C., Minister of Finance.

Hon. J. J. McCann, M.D., Minister of National Revenue.

Hon. R. W. Mayhew, Minister of Fisheries.

Hon. Milton F. Gregg, V.C., Minister of Veterans' Affairs.

Hon. L. B. Pearson, Secretary of State for External Affairs.

Hon. Stuart Garson, K.C., Minister of Justice.

Hon. R. H. Winters, Minister of Reconstruction.

Hon. W. McL. Robertson, Minister without Portfolio.

Alberta

The Department of Lands and Mines has been organized into two departments:

The Department of Mines.

The Department of Lands and Forests.

Manitoba

Premier: Hon. D. L. Campbell.

Ontario

Premier: Hon. T. L. Kennedy.

U. S. A.

Secretary of State: Dean Acheson.

France

Premier: Henri Queuille.

Egypt

The Premier, Nokrashy Pasha was recently assassinated.

Iran

Premier: Abdul Hussein Hajir.

Pakistan

M. Ali Jinnah died in September, 1947, and was replaced by Sir Khwaja Nazimuddin as Governor-General.

Countries participating in the European Recovery Plan:

United Kingdom	Iceland
France	Ireland
Netherlands	Turkey
Belgium	Switzerland
Luxembourg	Portugal
Norway	Italy
Denmark	Western Zones of Germany.
Sweden	Austria
Greece	Trieste Free Territory

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CLASSROOM BULLETIN ON SOCIAL
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